



# Computer Networks

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# Link Access

# Link Types

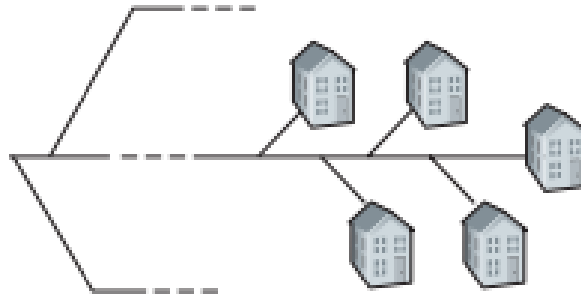


- There are two types of network links
- **A point-to-point link** consists of a single sender at one end of the link and a single receiver at the other end of the link. Many link-layer protocols have been designed for point-to-point links such as the point-to-point protocol (PPP).
  - Circuit-switched networks require dedicated point-to-point connections
- **A broadcast link**, can have multiple sending and receiving nodes all connected to the same, single, shared broadcast channel.
  - packet-switched network

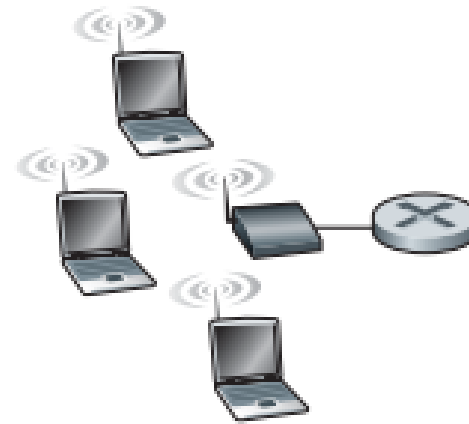
# Shared Medium



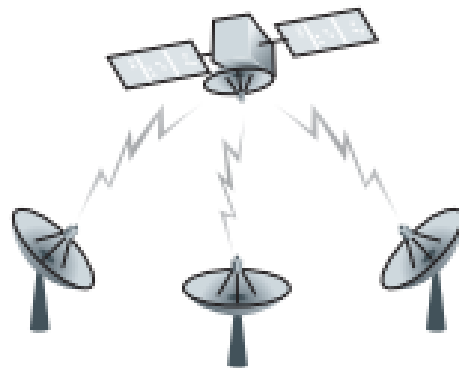
Shared wire



Shared wireless  
(for example, WiFi)



Satellite



party



# Multiple Access Problem



- Traditional one-way broadcast (that is, one fixed node transmitting to many receiving nodes e.g. Television ) don't have the multiple access problem.
- However, nodes on a computer network broadcast channel can both send and receive.
- It is necessary to share the broadcast medium (wire / frequency / air) efficiently and effectively in a fair manner among the various nodes
- Protocols that enable multiple users to share a finite amount of frequency and time resources are Media Access Control (MAC) Protocol.

# Human Analogy for Medium Access

- Party or Classroom, where one person talk and other listen, similarly share the same, single, broadcast medium.
- A central problem here is to determine who gets to talk and when?
- As humans, we've evolved many set of protocols for sharing the broadcast channel
  - "Give everyone a chance to speak."
  - "Don't speak until you are spoken to."
  - "Raise your hand if you have a question."
  - "Don't interrupt when someone is speaking."
  - "Don't fall asleep when someone is talking to you."

# MAC Categories



- MAC Protocols can be broadly classified into the following categories
  1. Channel Partitioning Protocols or Contention-free Protocols
  2. Random Access Protocols or Contention-based Protocols
  3. Taking-turns Protocols

# Key Concepts



- **Collisions**

- When two or more transmissions are received at the same time, it is said that there is a collision at the receiver (the two transmissions ought to be with the same frequency and at the same time.).
  - [Show Me](#)

- **Capture**

- If the strength of one of the signals is sufficiently large than the others, this signal could potentially be captured at the receiver. The other signal is called “INTERFERENCE”.

- **Attenuation / Path Loss:** (Signal Strength is proportional  $1/d$ )

- **Shadowing:** Due to hills or other large objects

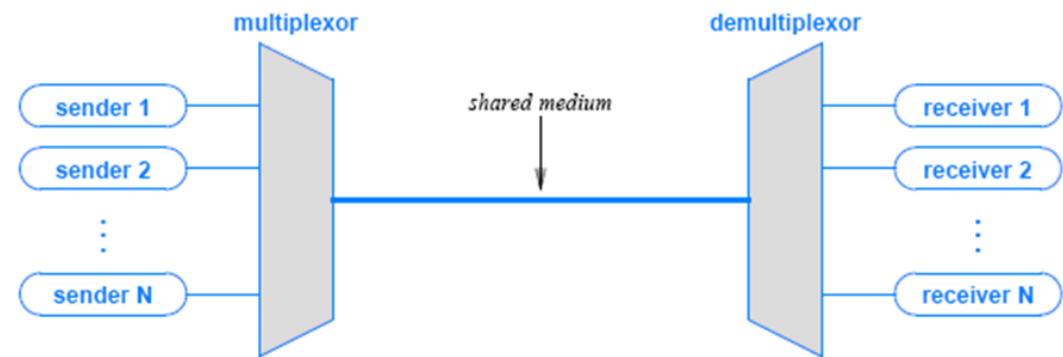
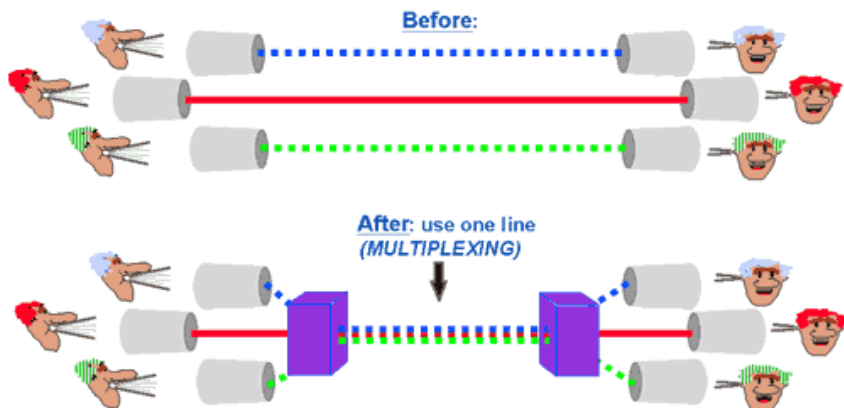




# Channel Partitioning Protocols Or Contention-free Protocols

# The Concept of Multiplexing

- Multiplexing refer to the combination of information streams from multiple sources for transmission over a shared medium
- Demultiplexing refer to the separation of a combination back into separate information streams
- Multiplexor combines information from the senders for transmission in such a way that the demultiplexor can separate the information for receivers



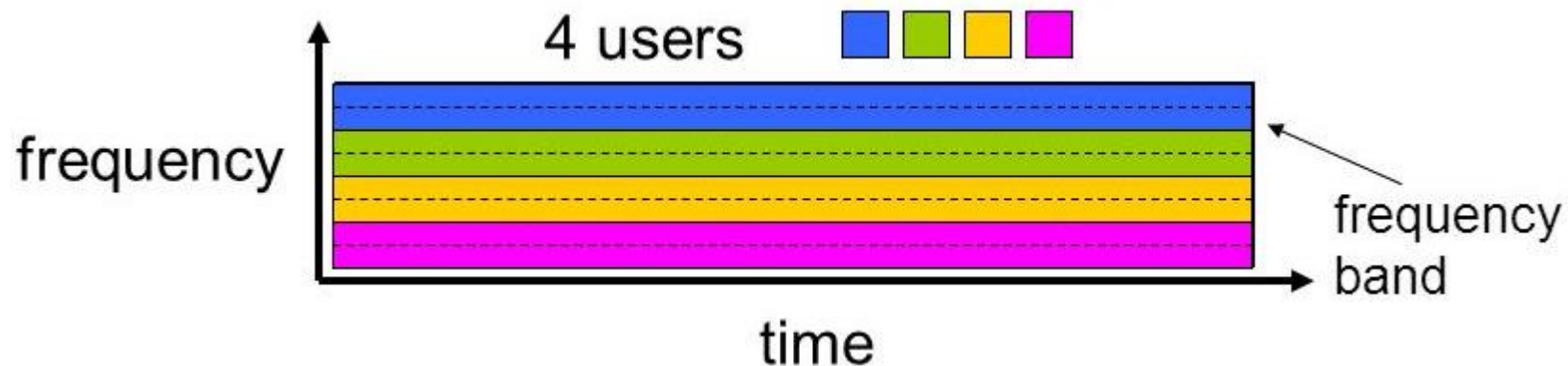
# The Basic Types of Multiplexing



- Basic approaches to multiplexing
  - Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)
  - Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)
  - Code Division Multiplexing (CDM)

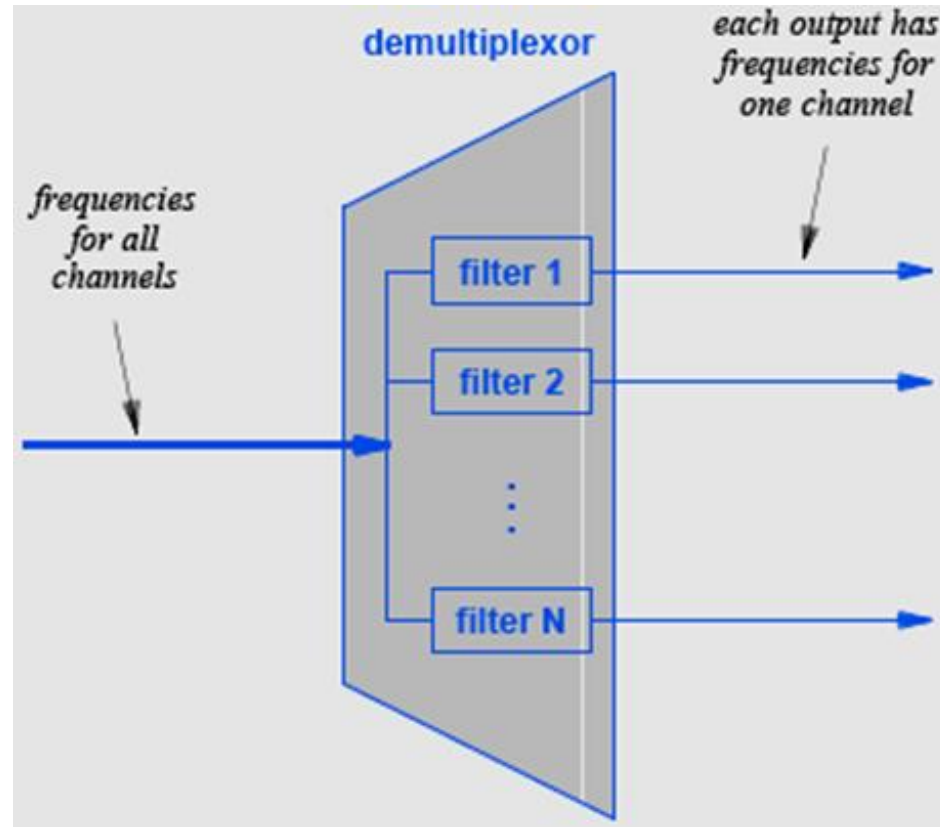
# Frequency Division Multiplexing

- A group of senders can transmit signals simultaneously
  - By using separate channel (i.e., carrier frequency)
- The total bandwidth available in a communication medium is divided into a series of **non-overlapping frequency bands**, each of which is used to carry a separate signal. This allows a single transmission medium such as a cable or optical fiber to be shared by multiple independent signals.
  - For example a **cable television or DSL modems** transmit large amounts of data through twisted pair telephone lines, among many other uses.



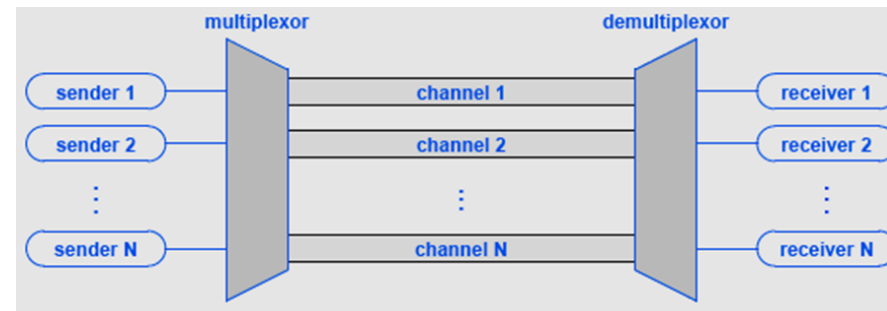
# Frequency Division Multiplexing

- A demultiplexer applies a set of filters that each extract the required range of frequencies for each receiver.



# Frequency Division Multiplexing

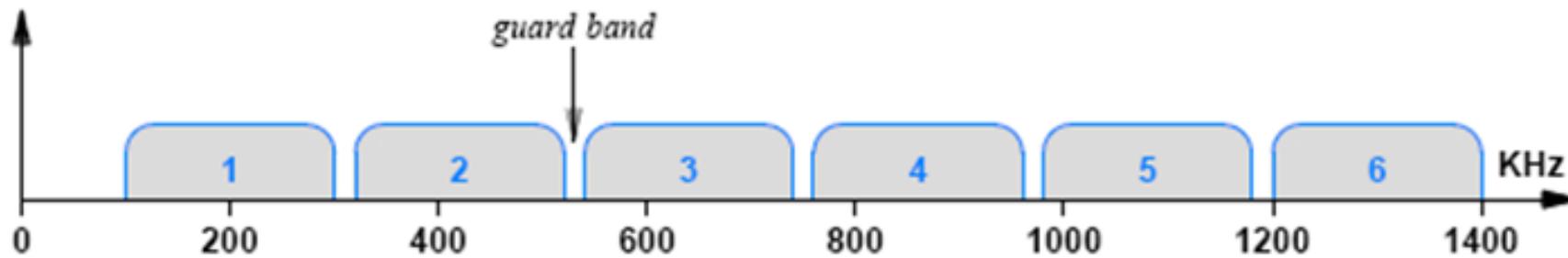
- FDM allows **simultaneous use** of a transmission medium by each user
- FDM **provides each pair with a private/ separate transmission path**
- Practical FDM systems - there are some limitations
  - If the frequencies of two channels overlaps or are too close, **interference** can occur, hence a gap between channels known as a guard band, is required
  - **Complex hardware** for multiplexing and demultiplexing
  - The overall frequency hence **bandwidth is divided** by the total number of users



# FDM Example

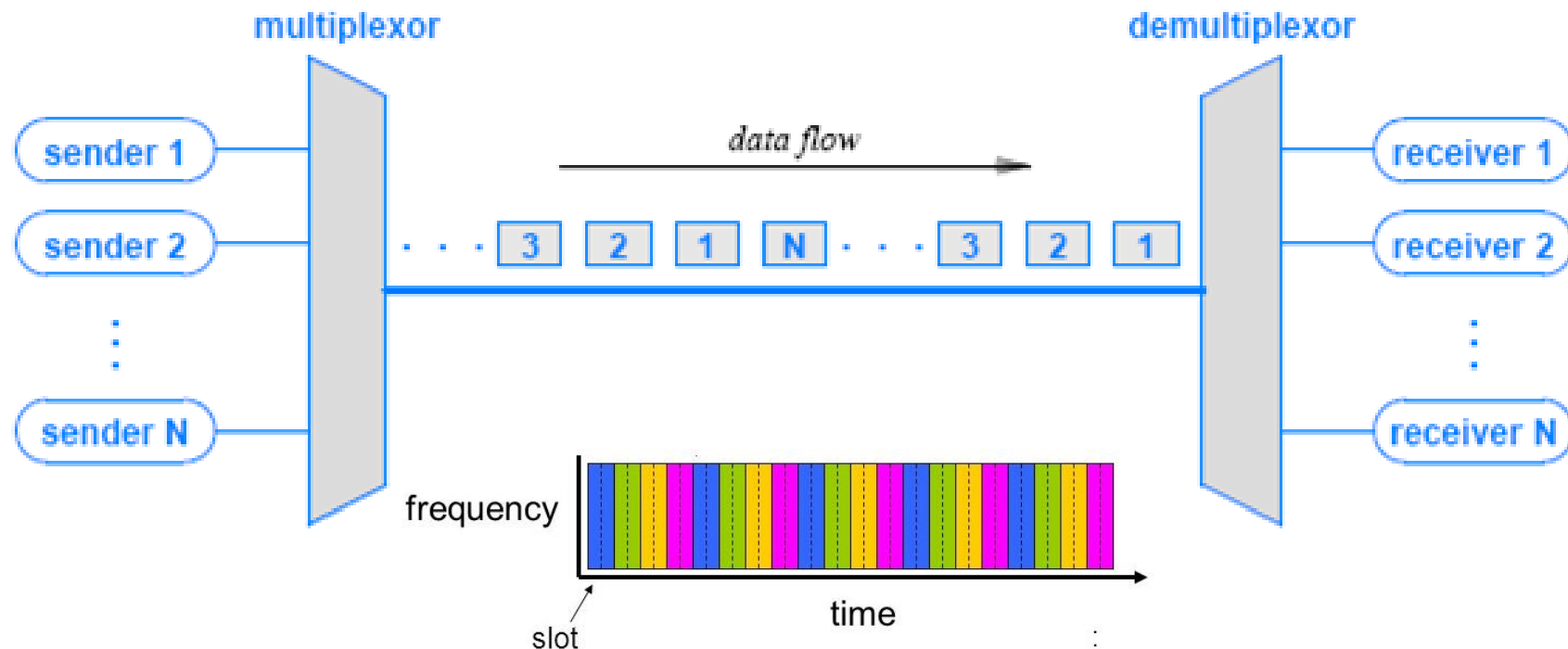
- 200 KHz to each of 6 channels with a guard band of 20 KHz between each

Channel	Frequencies Used
1	100 KHz - 300 KHz
2	320 KHz - 520 KHz
3	540 KHz - 740 KHz
4	760 KHz - 960 KHz
5	980 KHz - 1180 KHz
6	1200 KHz - 1400 KHz



# Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

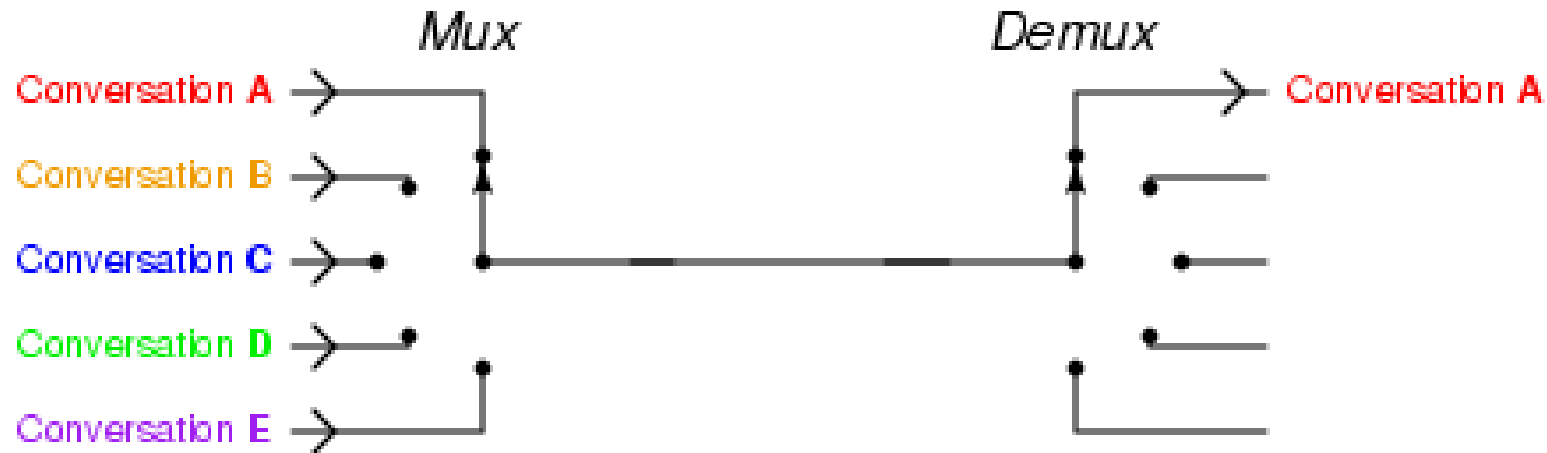
- TDM assigns time slots to each channel repeatedly
  - multiplexing in time simply means transmitting an item from one source, then transmitting an item from another source, and so on





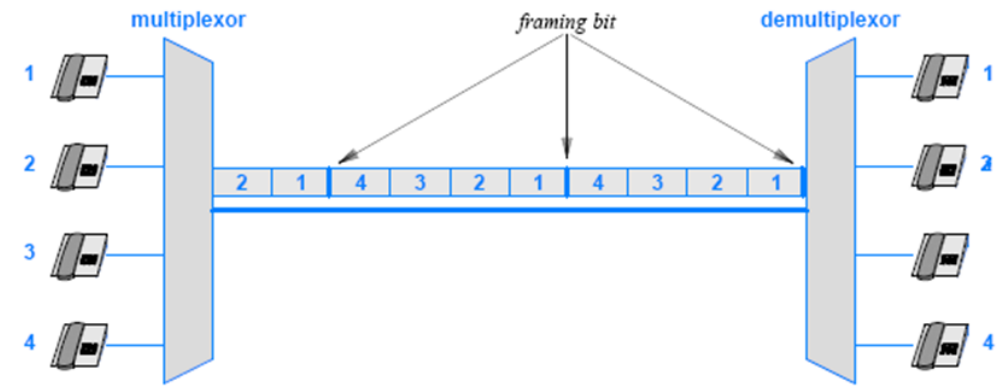
# Synchronous TDM

- The multiplexor accepts input from attached devices in a round-robin fashion
- Figure illustrates how synchronous TDM works for a system of five senders



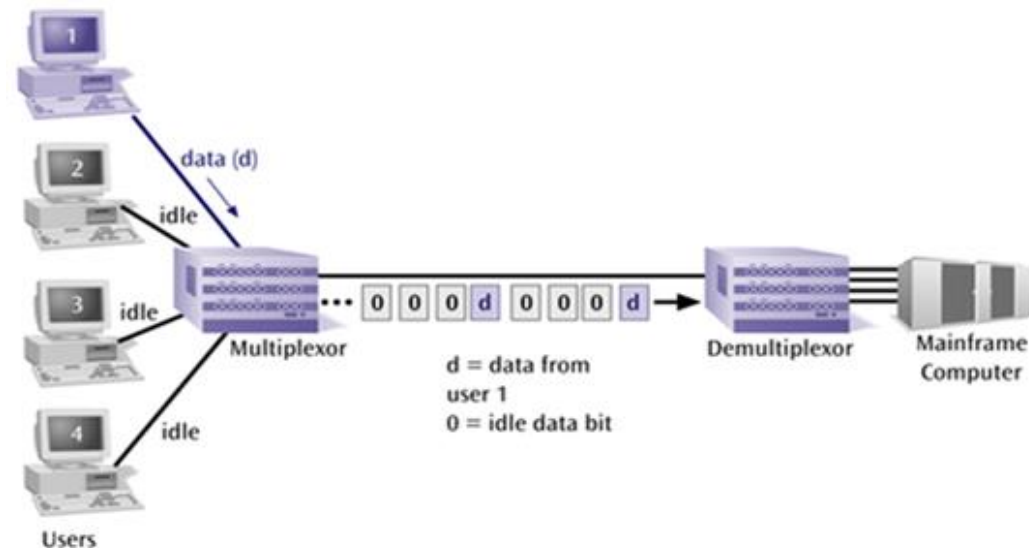
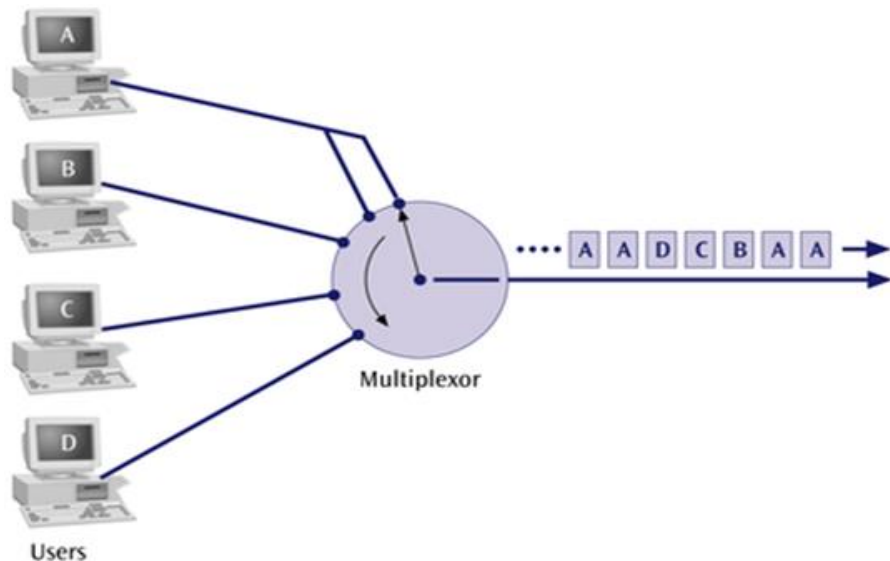
# Framing in Synchronous TDM

- Why is synchronization needed?
  - A synchronous TDM sends one slot after another, but does not indicate when a slot begins and when a slot ends
  - So a the demultiplexer cannot tell where a slot begins— a slight difference in the clocks can cause a demultiplexer to misinterpret the bit stream
- To prevent misinterpretation, an extra frame byte is used at the end of each round
- The demultiplexor synchronize with multiplexer using the framing byte



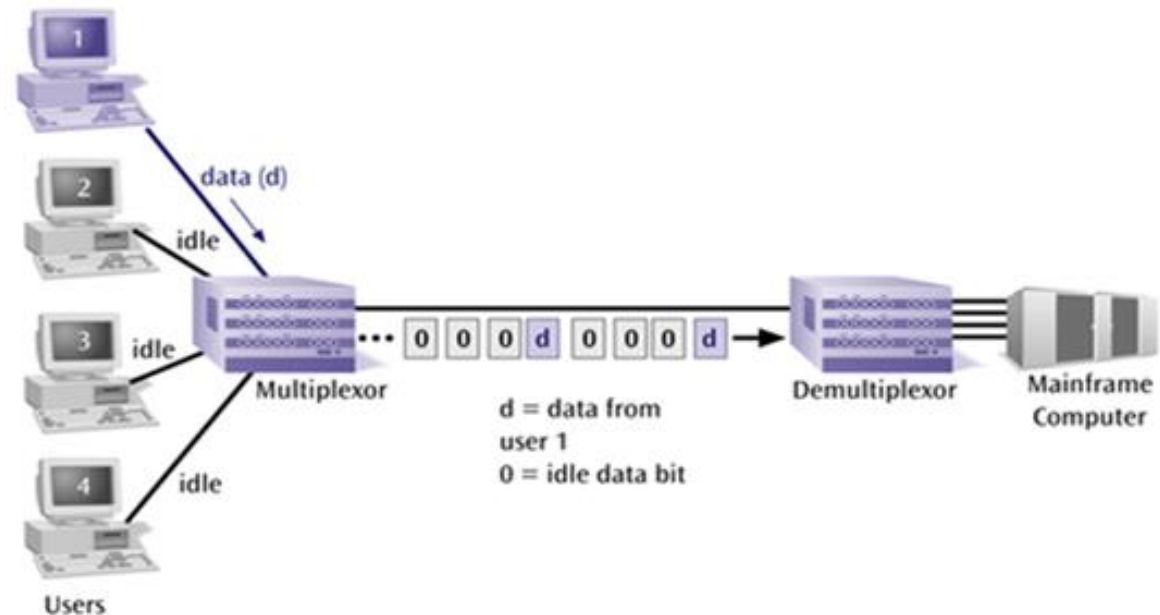
# The Problem with Synchronous TDM

- If one device generates data at a faster rate than other devices, then the multiplexor must either give that device more time or buffer its excessive data.
- Similarly, If a device has nothing to transmit, the multiplexor must still insert a piece of data from that device into the multiplexed stream.



# The Problem with Synchronous TDM

- Synchronous TDM works well if each source produces data at a uniform, fixed rate
- Many sources generate data at random
  - if the corresponding source has not produced data by the time the slot must be sent, the synchronous multiplexor leaves a slot unfilled, by assigning it a zero value



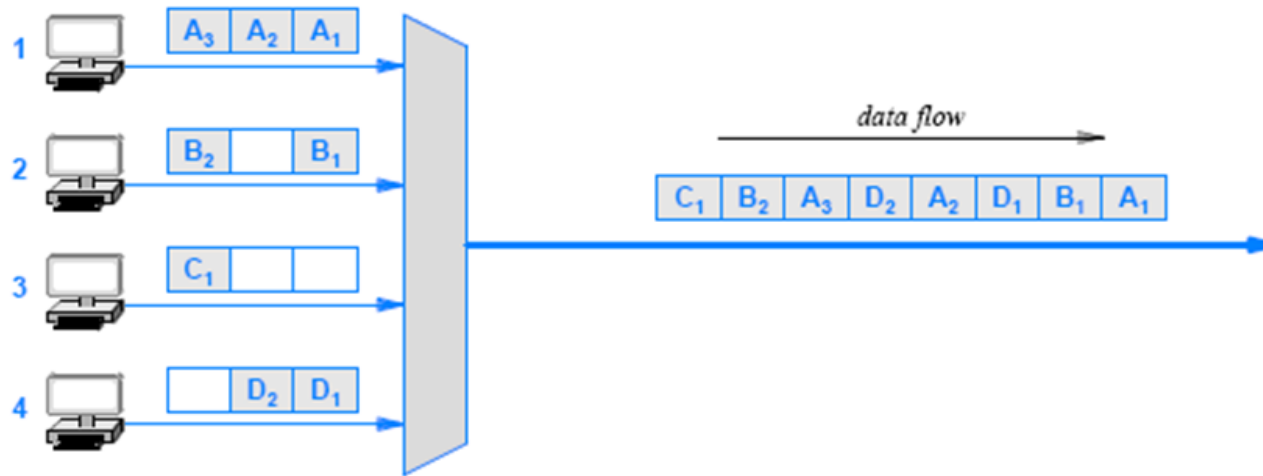
# Statistical TDM



- One technique to increase the overall data rate and channel utilization is known as **statistical TDM or asynchronous TDM**
- The technique is straightforward:
  - select items for transmission in a round-robin fashion
  - but instead of leaving a slot unfilled, skip any source that does not have data ready
- By eliminating unused slots
  - statistical TDM takes less time to send the same amount of data
- A statistical multiplexor does not require a high speed line since STDM does not assume all sources will transmit all of the time!

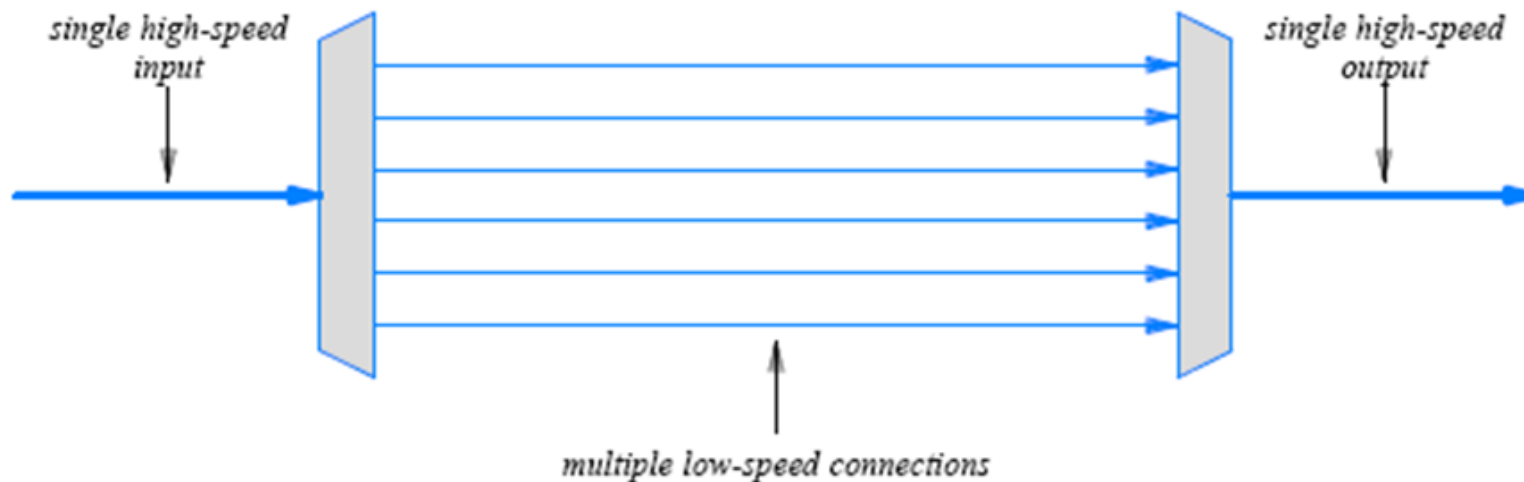
# Statistical TDM

- Statistical multiplexing incurs extra overhead
  - In a synchronous TDM system a demultiplexor knows that every N slot corresponds to a given receiver
  - In a statistical multiplexing system, the data in a given slot can correspond to any receiver
- Each slot must contain the identification of the receiver to which the data is being sent



# Inverse Multiplexing

- Assume a case where a connection between two points consists of multiple transmission media
  - but no single medium has a bit rate that is sufficient
- To solve the problem, multiplexing is used in reverse
  - split a high-speed digital input over multiple lower-speed outputs for transmission and combine the results at the receiving end



# Code Division Multiplexing (CDM)

- CDM used in cellular networks and for some satellite communication
- CDM does not rely on physical properties
  - such as frequency or time
- CDM relies on an interesting mathematical idea
- Each sender is assigned a unique binary code  $C_i$ 
  - that is known as a chip sequence
- At any point in time, each sender has data  $D_i$  to transmit
  - The senders multiply  $C_i \times D_i$  and transmit the results
- The senders transmit at the same time
  - and the data are added together
- To extract data  $D_i$ , a receiver multiplies the sum by  $C_i$



# Code Division Multiplexing (CDM)

- Consider we have four stations 1, 2, 3 and 4 ( with data  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$  and so on).
- The chip code assigned to first station is  $C_1$ , to the second is  $C_2$  and so on.
- The codes  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  assigned to each station should have two properties:
  - If we multiply each code by another, we get 0.
  - If we multiply each code by itself, we get 4. (No. of stations).
- Each station multiplies its data by its code i.e.  $d_1 \cdot C_1$  and so on
- The sum of all stations ( $d_1 \cdot C_1 + d_2 \cdot C_2 + d_3 \cdot C_3 + d_4 \cdot C_4$ ) is transmitted.
- To get the data sent by station 1, the receiver multiply the signals with the code of station 1 and then divide the result by the number of users
- $d_1 \cdot C_1 \cdot \mathbf{C1} + d_2 \cdot C_2 \cdot \mathbf{C1} + d_3 \cdot \mathbf{C3} \cdot C_1 + d_4 \cdot \mathbf{C4} \cdot C_1 = \mathbf{4 \times d1}$

# CDM Example

Sender	Chip Sequence	Data Value
A	1 0	1 0 1 0
B	1 1	0 1 1 0

- The first step consists of converting the binary values into vectors that use -1 to represent 0:

$$C_1 = (1, -1) \quad V_1 = (1, -1, 1, -1) \quad C_2 = (1, 1) \quad V_2 = (-1, 1, 1, -1)$$

Multiplying  $C_1 \times V_1$  and  $C_2 \times V_2$  produces:

$$((1, -1), (-1, 1), (1, -1), (-1, 1)) \quad ((-1, -1), (1, 1), (1, 1), (-1, -1))$$

- If we think of the resulting values as a sequence of signal strengths to be transmitted at the same time
  - the resulting signal will be the sum of the two signals

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ + & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline & 0 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & -2 & 0 \end{array}$$

# Code Division Multiplexing



- Thus, a receiver if want to compute the message of Sender A, computes:

$$(1, -1) \cdot ((0, -2), (0, 2), (2, 0), (-2, 0))$$

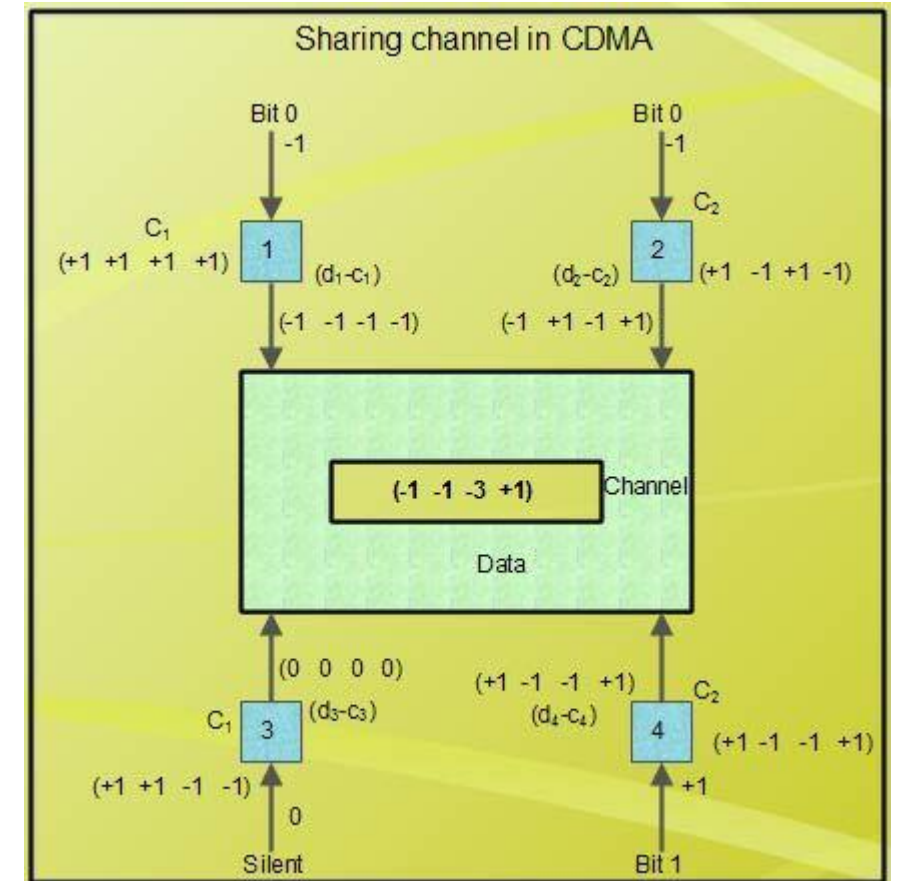
to get:

$$((0 + 2), (0 - 2), (2 + 0), (-2 + 0))$$

- Now treats the result as a sequence, and converts the result to binary by interpreting positive values as binary 1 and negative values as 0
  - Interpreting the result as a sequence produces: (2 -2 2 -2)
  - Dividing by the total number of users produce: (1 -1 1 -1)
  - Which becomes the binary value: (1 0 1 0)
  - Note that 1010 is the correct value of Sender A
  - Receiver 2 can extract the data of Sender B from the same transmission

# CDM Example 2

- Finding the data sent by Station 2.
  - Multiply the total data on the channel by the code  $[+1 -1 +1 -1]$ , of station 2
  - $[-1 -1 -3 +1] \cdot [+1 -1 +1 -1] = [-1 +1 -3 -1] = -4$
  - Divide by total users  $= -4/4 = -1$
  - $-1 \rightarrow \text{bit } 0$



# CDM

